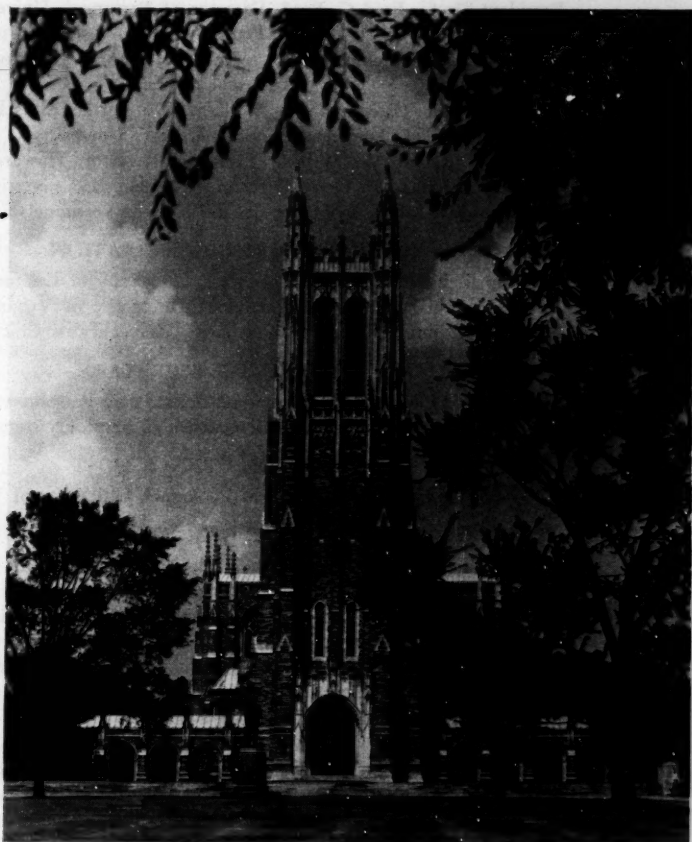


the **Journal**

*of the College and University
Personnel Association*



Duke University Chapel

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of the
College and University Personnel Association

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“ . . . notes and quotes . . . ”

Duke University Chapel

The Duke University Chapel, a Gothic structure designed to inspire a spirit of deep reverence and respect upon entrance, was planned in 1923, although the cornerstone was not laid until October 22, 1930. The Chapel was the building first in the mind of James Buchanan Duke. At the heart of his idea of education was religion, and in the physical center of the University was to stand the Chapel. Construction of the Chapel required over two years, and it was June, 1932 before the first religious service was held there. The Chapel was formally dedicated on June 2, 1935.

The architectural style of the Chapel is English Gothic, and the masonry struc-

ture is entirely functional in that it is not supported internally by steel beams. Certain characteristics of the building are reminiscent of an English cathedral, and the tower is patterned after the Bell Harry Tower of Canterbury Cathedral. The Chapel in its entirety, however, is a unique example of architectural craftsmanship and is modeled upon no particular structure in either Europe or the United States.

Like the other buildings flanking it, the Chapel is constructed of stone from the Duke Quarry near Hillsboro, North Carolina. This is a volcanic stone from the Cambrian area. The trimmings, the lectern, the pulpit, and the balustrade of the choir are of limestone from Bedford, Indiana.

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Are We Too Gentlemanly?

When we see kindness and wit and courage, let's not leave our approval for the epitaph. But when we see viciousness and spinelessness and dishonesty, let's take the time to fight it. This isn't a job that's going to be done by somebody else—they are failing, and the future bodes little more cheer. If you want a world where your rights will be respected, it's going to have to be one where everybody's rights are respected. The next time somebody gets kicked—you or your neighbor—in the face or in the wallet—kick back!—Edward J. Fox, Chairman of the Marketing Department and Senior Staff Consultant, First Research Corporation, in "Business Bulletin," University of Miami.

What's Your C.Q.?

C.Q. stands for Cooperation Quotient—a measure to use in testing yourself for aptitude for supervisory success. Answer each question with "always," "sometimes," or "rarely."

When making staff assignments, do you leave room for individual initiative beyond the errand level?

Are assignments geared to abilities?

Do you insist that your people consistently improve their performance?

Do you let your staff members see measurable results of their efforts?

Do you give them the feeling that you're putting them in business for themselves?

Do you take the blame for mistakes?

Do you share credit for your department's success?

Are your assistants trained to report

back upon completion of an assignment?

Do you discourage excuses as to why they didn't complete an assignment?

Do your staff people know how you evaluate their work?

Do you credit them with their accomplishments and recommend them for fair rewards?

Rate yourself: Each "always" answer rates 3 points; "sometimes" rates 2 points; "rarely" rates 1 point. If your score is:

Over 16—you know how to get good teamwork. Keep it up!

14-16—You're missing some chances to lighten your own workload.

10-13—You need to step up your delegating; perhaps you're avoiding taking responsibility for your staff's actions.

Under 10—Your supervisory responsibilities sometimes get the better of you. Pick out one weak area and work on it to improve your C.Q.

—Los Angeles County's "Employee Development Newsletter".

A Letter Of Application

Do you need someone to work there. I can do it. Would need \$50. to get there + large car for people and stuff. Need clothes you wear there. I would have to have \$600 a month. Don't wait it aint so much you go broke. Send now. tomorrow don't come. Can handle criple people, hateful people & stubborn ones. Weight 145. 5'7" tall. Blone hair. Write now. Love Shoes, size 8. black loafers. & baby, size 4. black loafers. Who is Boss? how old?

—via Ben Cullen, Medical College of Virginia.

“ . . . editorially speaking . . . ”

PAUL J. JENKINS

*Director of Personnel
University of Virginia*

Our colleges and universities do not exist to provide us, or the administrative staffs, with jobs. We are basically a portion of the higher education triangle of students, faculty, and staff.

Exploring methods of improving faculty-administrative relationships is an interesting and worthwhile project for any college or university. The subject also presents a challenge for anyone who attempts to shed new light on the topic when preparing something for consumption by his colleagues.

While thinking about the factors involved in covering this subject, I thought it would be a good idea to explore the problems in faculty-personnel office relationships at the University of Virginia. The first evaluation was that there were no problems—it appeared that we enjoyed extremely harmonious relationships. At about the time this conclusion was reached, the following note was received enclosing a form we had requested a faculty member to complete:

Dear Mr. Jenkins:

This personal information was submitted to your office when I was employed by the University in 1958. Why a request for duplicate information?

This type of thing can be very annoying!

Obviously, this required a quick reorientation of my thinking about the subject at hand.

Actually, our University is not the best example to show real problems in this area because of these factors:

1. We are small. The Personnel Office has only about 500 faculty members to deal with, including 10 deans and 50 department chairmen.

2. A large percentage of our top administrative positions are occupied by former members of our faculty or by those who are still teaching a course or two. This group includes the President, Assistant to President, Provost, Comptroller, Dean of Students, Director of Admissions, Coordinator of Physical Plant Planning, Registrar, and Bursar.

Reasons For Poor Relationships

What are some of the reasons for poor relationships between the faculty and the administration?

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1. Lack of knowledge on the part of faculty members about the need for, or the function of, administrative procedures. Administration, in the eyes of many faculty members, is pictured as a big hand with a big form (in quintuplicate) with an eerie voice saying, "fill it out." Many think of administration as the science of paper shuffling. Administration is also that thing that says "no" when a faculty member asks for something. Many times this "no" is thrown up by a relatively low level member of the staff. This lack of understanding results in basic distrust of anything related to administration.

2. There is a basic difference in education and training. In most instances the faculty member has a background in science or in methodology similar to scientific training. This means that the faculty and the administration have learned to play different games but have been placed in a situation requiring the playing of a common game. These basic differences are revealed occasionally when we find that an outstanding scientist is not a successful administrator.

3. A faculty member's complete existence is tuned to the classroom or the laboratory. Many feel that all that is needed for a great university is faculty and students. Anything that interferes with this ideological situation tends to become a hindrance—something that is evil.

4. Custom is an inherent contributor toward poor faculty-administrative relationships. There is a faculty caste system which stands alone, and there is no common denominator to permit equating administrative people with the faculty. The caste system is demonstrated before all for observation during the academic processions. One layman, during one of these

occasions, observed to a faculty member that the various symbols of rank were similar to the military. The faculty member replied, "Oh no, there is no similarity. See, they are not even in step."

Other customs are attributed to, and accepted by, the faculty, such as the "absent-minded professor." This means that to be a real "honest-to-goodness" professor it is necessary for one to be absent-minded at the proper time.

Methods Of Improvement

What can the Personnel Director do to improve his relationships with the faculty?

Initially, it should be understood that any attempt to improve faculty-administration relationships must be based upon the assumption that, for the most part, the faculty is completely without understanding of the administrative machinery which must exist in any sizable public or private organization. An understanding of this principle should lead us to:

1. Getting to know them personally.

Mix and mingle with them and their families. This is one of the best ways to break down some of the inherent distrust. The ability to talk about administrative problems with a faculty member who is known personally results in improved communication. (Confidentially, some of my best friends are faculty members.)

2. Explaining administrative procedures to them. Let them know the backgrounds and reasons why it is better, or necessary, to do things the way we want them done. This could be accomplished by individual or group discussions.

3. Explaining statutory and governing board requirements. Most faculty members are not informed that there are re-

(Continued on Page 35)

The End Of The Rainbow

R. HEATH LARRY

"Can we expect big unions operating in the present framework of the law to mature to the point that they give up this harmful rainbow chasing? Or must we conclude that there exists a kind of built-in, power-feeding, dependence upon continuing the chase?"

I must confess that when your program chairman showed me the agenda for your Fourteenth Annual Conference I could scarcely repress a smile. Judging only by the problems listed for your discussion, it would be hard to tell whether this was a conference of personnel representatives of the American steel industry or a Conference of the College and University Personnel Association. With such subjects on your agenda as "Fringe Benefits," "Creating Incentives," and "Improving Productivity," I feel as much at home right here in this dignified, educational atmosphere as I do in the steel industry!

Anyone who has to wrestle with the problems of incentives and productivity—as you do—certainly has my sympathy. This kinship of problems should make

us brothers in the blood—to say nothing of sweat, and sometimes tears. You might say that we all wear the Purple Heart of Personnel!

So I feel very close to you, and I am interested in your problems. Your chairman tells me that you also are interested in mine. He says you want to hear something about the recent steel negotiations because of the bearing they may have on the labor market in which you compete. I shall try to satisfy your curiosity, in some measure, at least.

Something In Common

He tells me, moreover, that organized labor is gaining a foothold on college campuses and that you are eager to know all you can about how unions operate. While I know I can't fully satisfy your curiosity on the subject, I will try to share with you a few observations which may be useful. Despite some twenty years of observing labor unions closely, at times I have the very uncomfortable suspicion that the more closely I observe, the less I

Mr. Larry, Administrative Vice President for Labor Relations, United States Steel Corporation, presented this address as the banquet speaker for the Fourteenth Annual Conference of the College and University Personnel Association, Carnegie Institute of Technology, August 8, 1960.

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really know. So, perhaps I should simply say that I join you in being eager to know, and conclude that, again, we have something in common.

I would like to say at this point that I particularly appreciate this opportunity of meeting with you. Because of your personnel experience, you are in a position to understand the problems that we, in industry, face, far better, perhaps, than most of your fellow members of the academic community.

On the other hand, because of daily contact with your faculties, you are also in a better position, probably, than are we, in industry, to understand the problems of the academic community. Thus, I look upon you as a bridge—a very valuable bridge of understanding between the educational world and the industrial world.

I can say, therefore, that I extend to each of you and your families a very warm greeting from Pittsburgh industry. I won't deny that we are rather proud of our industry here in Pittsburgh—and of our ball team. But we are also proud of our universities and their educational and cultural attainments, and we are especially pleased that they have brought your Conference to our city.

Your Order Books Full

My greeting is no less warm, despite the fact that, at the present time, we, in the steel industry, view you with considerable envy. After all, *your* order books are full; you have more than enough customers to operate at full capacity! We are all too well aware that this is not the case in the steel industry where, regrettably, our current operating rate leaves something to be desired.

I point out to you, however, that had you been here at this same time last year,

you would have found our operating rate at zero. As you will remember, we were then experiencing the first several weeks of what turned out to be the most costly steel strike in history.

This was no "stabilizing period of inactivity," a phrase one powerful labor leader once used facetiously in relation to certain stoppages he was causing. Rather, I think, this steel strike was one of the most unstabilizing influences upon the American economy in recent years. But it did more than shake up the economy; it shook up a lot of thinking about collective bargaining—a matter to which we shall later return.

End Of The Rainbow

You may be wondering at this point why I chose "The End of the Rainbow" as my title for tonight's remarks. As I think about it now, its inconclusive tone reminds me of a cartoon which I saw in a New York newspaper last summer during the heat of our steel industry bargaining sessions. George, the family breadwinner, had just rolled over in bed, with all the appearances of being just about asleep, while the good wife was still sitting up in bed, putting the last few curlers in place before turning off the light. The caption below the cartoon read, "George, something's happened which I simply must tell you about, but you'd better get a good night's sleep first."

To be sure, the selection of such an enigmatic title was, perhaps, a risk. To some of you, it may suggest that you might as well get a little sleep, right now; that no matter how you try to follow the thoughts which I shall try to arch over to you from this platform, you will only find, when you follow them to the end, that there really will be nothing there.

THE END OF THE RAINBOW

This could turn out to be the case, despite my best efforts to avoid it! But you can be sure that is not my intention. My purpose is a serious one, and my choice was in the belief that the rainbow could well symbolize certain problems of collective bargaining which I would like to consider with you tonight.

Rainbow chasing, as a child's pastime, can be relatively innocuous; but rainbow chasing in the area of collective bargaining can have a wide and harmful effect, particularly when the chasing is done by a powerful nation-wide union, inclined to crush all obstacles in its path, in pursuit of a pot of gold that isn't there.

As children I'll wager that every one of us used to thrill to the beauty of the rainbow and dream of someday finding the legendary pot of gold at its end. But, as we matured, we were to learn that, while the rainbow was in truth symbolic of great promise, the legendary promise of something for nothing was pure myth.

Collective bargaining is old enough to begin to show signs of similar maturity; and we've had enough history to prove that even the rainbow promise of collective bargaining can't lead us to a way to take more out of the economy than we have put into it. Big unions have been trying it now for a good many years—and the result has only been more and more wage-push inflation, with our currency losing half its value in less than twenty years.

So we come face to face with a big question—and it's this: Can we expect big unions operating in the present framework of the law to mature to the point that they give up this harmful rainbow chasing? Or must we conclude that there exists a kind of built-in, power-feeding, dependence upon continuing the chase?

While pondering the question, let's review some of the events of the recent steel crisis as a kind of case history.

A Long And Costly Strike

There can be little doubt that long in advance of expiration of the prior labor agreement, scheduled for June 30, 1959, there was general fear of—and expectation of—a long and costly strike. The book makers—the order book makers, namely, the steel industry customers—virtually unanimously expressed their apprehension by protective buying of large amounts of steel.

Why was this apprehension so prevalent? Part of the answer lies, of course, in a few rather self-evident facts. The customers, like the rest of the country's citizenry, were growing sick and tired of inflation. They were concerned over the constant loss in purchasing power of their currency; they were concerned over the distortions which it produced in distributing the benefits of the country's productivity growth; they were aware that it was largely of wage-push origin. They were aware that the steel workers' wages and benefits were among the highest of all manufacturing workers in the country. They were aware that the wages of steel workers had gone up faster and farther than those of most other workers. They were aware that in the last several decades, hourly employment costs in the steel industry had gone up about three to four times as fast as had output per man-hour in the steel industry or in the economy as a whole. They were aware that steel workers' wages had gone up about five or six times the percentage increase in the cost of living just during the previous six years. They knew that the steel workers themselves were well aware of all this, having seen union officials

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pointing with pride to this record at its Ninth Constitutional Convention in Atlantic City in the latter part of 1958.

The customers were also aware, perhaps more acutely than any other group in America, except the steel companies themselves, of the burden of competitive pressures at home and abroad; after all, they were, in increasing numbers, not only buying abroad, but moving abroad to escape the high cost of both materials and labor at home.

Trends Required Change

It was obvious that past trends in steel bargaining had to be changed.

But all this, of course, would only be part of the story. It need not have meant a paralyzing strike—not if there were any reasonable expectation that the United Steelworkers officials and policy makers could be expected voluntarily to take cognizance of the changing situation as they approached 1959 bargaining.

Was this too much to expect at this point in history from a nation-wide union possessed of the tremendous power which lay within the hands of the Steelworkers Union? Or would it feel impelled to follow its pattern of past years, pushing for employment cost increases exceeding any measure of productivity increase, and doing so either under the banner of increasing purchasing power, if the economy was sluggish, or of seeking what it calls just a "fair share of profits," if business was booming?

Well, you'll remember that the union's leadership soon left the country and the customers little room for doubting that it intended to twist the inflation screw another turn; that it was out to chase the same old rainbow. The union asserted that it expected just as much as ever before. Its siren song was, "The more

you earn, the more you buy," and the recession-geared, time-worn, purchasing-power banner was unfurled with a flourish.

Now it is rare, indeed, for a union to get a chance to use both its purchasing-power and its profit-pillorying arguments in the same negotiation. They are normally mutually inconsistent. But just as soon as steel production reached exaggerated levels as a result of pre-strike protective buying, profits became the new target, and the public was warned against any reply the Corporation might make to union charges. "Let us warn you now," it said, "the Corporation may try to explain away its riches. Management will try to excuse profits for many reasons, including scare buying by their customers."

New Rainbow Chased

That was in May of 1959. Scare buying by our customers, and the consequent bulge in profits, according to the union's leadership, was only a management myth. But listen to that leadership in May of 1960: "Few of the experts," it now says, "shared our concern that the economic spurt from the low levels of 1957-58 was inspired principally by scare buying prior to the shutdown of the steel industry." Now if this seems to you like a reversal of position, I suppose we just have to recognize that now a new rainbow is being chased, concerning which I want to make several comments in a few moments.

It is not my purpose, at this point, to invite argument over who was trying to convince whom about whether there was scare-buying preceding the 1959 steel strike. Nor is it my purpose now to argue that the economic waste of the strike itself, coupled with the gyrations in buying habits induced by its threat, con-

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stitute root causes of the economic difficulties which temporarily beset the industry and its employees.

Rather, I simply want it to be noted that the verdict of the customers was unfortunately accurate in forecasting that the Steelworkers Union would not, or perhaps could not at this time, in voluntary collective bargaining, give up its outmoded rainbow chasing. Rather, the union struck the industry, as anticipated, continued its strike for 116 days, finally making government intervention of some kind unavoidable; and the compromise settlement, based on terms recommended by government officials, finally emerged.

32-Hour Week

And while we are reflecting upon whether this is what has to happen in order to achieve at least some progress toward making settlements more in accord with economic reality, we see that union leadership has begun chasing this new rainbow called the 32-hour week.

Now I am not going to say that a 32-hour week can never come. But I see no present signs that the American people have become so disdainful of further improvement in their standard of living that they elect to give up the pursuit of improvement in order to increase their opportunity for leisure time. Basically, our standard of living lies in the goods and services we produce—in our accumulation of "living equipment"—and it can improve only as we improve the efficiency with which we produce. Any such improvement can result either in increased leisure time, or in an increased production, or it can be divided between the two. But improvement taken in the form of greater leisure can't be simultaneously utilized for greater production, or vice versa; and the combined progress in

either or both directions cannot occur faster than our over-all improvement in productive efficiency.

The answers to questions about the shorter work week must, I think, ultimately be determined by free choices expressed in the nation's competitive markets, if the maximum satisfaction of all concerned is to be secured. The 32-hour week cannot be arbitrarily imposed upon our economic system by coercive bargaining or by legislative compulsion without our nation paying a heavy penalty in slower growth and weakened defenses.

It is an economic fact of real life—and no vision of a rainbow-chaser—that we can only consume what we produce, and if we want to maintain or increase our consumption while, at the same time decreasing our hours of production, there is only one way to do it. We shall have to have a truly fantastic increase in capital investment—and this, under today's tax and depreciation laws, is simply impossible.

Aside from these general observations, there are several specific observations which ought to be made.

Hourly Cost Rise

First, any concept of reducing the work week from 40 to 32 hours, while maintaining the same take-home pay, involves an hourly employment cost increase of at least 25 per cent right off the bat.

If any union leader were to come right out and propose a 25 per cent increase in hourly rates—on top of the employment cost increases already imposed upon the steel industry, under the recent agreement, it would sound ridiculous! I feel sure that even union members would see the absurdity of that. Yet, under the guise of attacking the alleged ogre of automation and unemployment, that is exactly what

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has been done. No one should be under the impression that this proposal is simply to divide existing work among employees while keeping present rates of pay. This proposal is inflationary with a capital "I"! And no one should be thinking otherwise.

More Workers Than Available

The second thing that needs to be observed is that, even now, the rate of unemployment in this country is ranging just a little above 5 per cent. Assuming the same time required to produce products as under a 40-hour week, simple arithmetic shows that a universal 32-hour week would require about four times as many people to be added to the work force as the total of all now unemployed; and no one knows from where they would come.

Problem Not Automation

The third thing that needs to be observed is that the present unemployment situation which is being used as a springboard for this proposal is not automation-based unemployment, as is inferred. The plain fact is that there is simply no way to avoid fluctuations in the sales curve as long as customers are free to buy when they want to and not buy when they don't want to. And this is especially the case when that buying pattern is so disrupted by protective purchases in anticipation of a steel strike! There is simply no way to automate customers into nice, steady buying habits. Reducing the work week to 32 hours, and thus having more people in the work force, would in no way level out the buying of consumers and thus forever end the ups and downs in steel production, and surely none would think this; if anything, it would simply mean that more people would

eventually be subject to fluctuations in steel employment than now are, and this is no help to anyone.

The fourth observation that *must* be made is that the 32-hour week—or any other "hour week"—is not the answer to the "threat" of automation. For automation *is* no "threat"—and never has been. If it were, then we should extinguish the electric lights and put the candlemakers back to work. We should destroy the automobiles and put the blacksmiths and the stable boys back to work. We should abandon typewriters and improve employment in the quill pen industry. There is no evidence that automation is sweeping the country or the steel industry in such a wave as to constitute any graver threat than technological progress has constituted throughout the history of America. And this has been no real threat at all.

Lack Of Modernization

If there is a threat, it has been of another nature; namely, not enough modernization has been occurring in the steel mills of America in relation to progress elsewhere in the world. And one of the reasons is that continuing wage-push inflation has outmoded and destroyed the effectiveness of capital replacement through depreciation. What is needed is a modern depreciation system under the tax laws so that industry can go forward with the job of a thorough modernization to the end that its competitive position might be maintained and improved in domestic and world markets. Nothing has yet changed the laws of economic survival which dictate that the mills which are modernized stay in business and provide jobs whereas those that are not, close down and the jobs disappear with them.

The fifth observation is that the 32-hour week proposal admittedly repre-

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sents one more dose of the old purchasing power theory. This has proved in the past to be both a bitter and damaging medicine. No new purchasing power is created simply by changing those who spend it, and the results of trying it are likely to be either more unemployment or more inflation. Any further doses of this medicine had better be poured down the drain. Enough about the 32-hour week for now.

Thinking Jolted

I said earlier that the steel strike of 1959 jolted not only the economy, but jolted a lot of thinking about collective bargaining as well.

There was a time, back when the Wagner Act first became a part of our law, when collective bargaining was looked upon as having all of the bright promise of a rainbow—as holding the real key to peaceful solution of problems between employers and unions. But in the succeeding twenty-five years, unions, whose status was fostered by that law, have grown so large and so powerful that the very process of collective bargaining now seems to arouse more fears than hopes.

It is said on all sides that strikes—of the scope and duration of last summer's steel strike—simply must not happen again.

In this atmosphere, some groups have come to the conclusion that free collective bargaining cannot be allowed to exist where there is an industry-wide union and where the industry is a so-called key industry, so they recommend compulsory arbitration and imposed settlements by government or third parties.

Preservation Of A Free Society

Others, realizing that the end of free

bargaining may mean the end of free markets and the end of a free society, as we have known it, still seek other approaches. And this includes some unions, for some labor leaders seem to realize full well that their ultimate existence is wholly dependent upon the preservation of a free society. So we see suggestions for Summit Meetings and for joint study committees, and the like.

It is paradoxical, in a way, to see some of those who are searching after means to preserve collective bargaining, commenting as Under Secretary of Labor James O'Connell did recently in Chicago, when he took occasion to laud parties to bargaining who were approaching their problems "in the clear and objective air of a search after solution . . . away from the frustrations and tensions of the bargaining table." Implicit, seemingly, was the unhappy impression that the frustrations and tensions of the bargaining table make problem-solving virtually impossible in normal bargaining.

It would sound very much as though the institution of collective bargaining were coming to justify the description Oscar Wilde applied to a man when he wrote these words: "He is a man without enemies; but unfortunately none of his friends like him very much."

Future Of Collective Bargaining

What can be expected of collective bargaining in the future? What are the chances of its regaining its early promise? By way of answer, let me suggest four other questions:

1. Must union status depend upon achieving "victories" over the employer—upon cultivating an image of the employer as the enemy which must be beaten down and from which the innocent must be protected?

Judging from many union newspapers, the answer would seem to be "yes," but as long as this remains so, it is a little hard to see how any spirit of mutual confidence can ever settle over management-union relations.

2. Must union status depend upon forcing continual rounds of inflationary wage settlements upon our economy in an effort to perpetuate the illusion that rising standards of living result from union power and pressure, rather than from investment and creative ingenuity fostered by the profit motive—as is really the case?

Until major unions both say it isn't so and show it isn't so, (and unfortunately little has occurred in this direction so far) employers will have to expect a rough time in any efforts to achieve economic sanity in bargaining settlements and, probably, be accused of union-busting in the process.

3. Must union status depend on continuing availability to unions of elements of force which are denied, and properly so, to other groups of our society—such as the force of the picket line and the force of compulsory union membership, for example?

Surely, the union movement does not have such feet of clay that it must be propped up by access to forcible means to attain and retain its adherents. But as long as unions contend for this type of special privilege, they belie any other conclusion. Organizations which draw support from force rather than from constructive contribution are bound to create continuing problems for a free society.

4. Does union status depend upon continuing an industry-wide, multi-company type of union organization and the use of the resulting power in derogation of the free market system—in derogation of any meaningful identification of the interests

of the employees of a particular employer with the future progress of that employer as a separate competitive element in the free market system?

If so, then the opportunity for real understanding of mutual problems of employer and employees will continue to be most difficult, and the problems of collective bargaining are likely in the future to be bigger problems than collective bargaining was ever intended to handle.

Unless, and until, we see some encouraging answers to the problems these questions pose, the rainbow hope of collective bargaining may indeed continue to fade.

This would be most unfortunate—for collective bargaining is the only way we know for resolving problems and achieving understanding between employers and union-represented employees in a free society. If, as now practiced, it contains elements which are at odds with the concepts of a free market and a free society, then I suggest that unless these elements can be removed, either collective bargaining, or our free society, or, more likely, both together, may be severely damaged.

Survival Of Ideal Of Freedom

Now, if I were to stop right here, you might conclude that I see nothing but gloom in the collective bargaining picture. But you would be wrong. I see many problems, to be sure, but I also have an intense belief in the ability of free men to work out a solution to their problems. I have faith in the ultimate ability of leaders of unions and industry to find ways of working together to keep our economy moving forward in the framework of a free society.

Moreover, I believe the American

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worker is sound and intelligent and will be found willing to support union policies which are not predicated on picturing the employer as the "enemy." I believe that union leaders will ultimately find that it will be "good politics" to adopt policies which assist, rather than harm, the interests of the enterprise with which the employees are associated. For only in this way can unions and management combine in making possible the

fullest employment of American industry in the service of the nation and the security of its people.

I am well aware that the survival of the ideal of freedom for which this nation stands, and on which these beliefs are predicated, is far from inevitable. I know that this ideal will survive only if enough Americans care enough, and I shall continue to believe that they will.

This whole social situation that we call an interview is quite inadequately explored. . . . [A]n interview by an employing officer who says, in effect, "I like him, so you work with him," is quite ineffective. The interview needs to be by the people with whom the individual is to work. . . . The people who must work with any particular employee are not only those above him, but the subordinates as well, and I would like to suggest that the interview procedure that is likely to be most telling . . . would be the procedure whereby a candidate for a job was interviewed both by his superior . . . and by

his immediate subordinates for that job.

. . . If I must work with a man immediately above me, I am as concerned that he should be capable, and at the same time that he should be workable with, as is his superior. . . . If the group is to work effectively, then it seems to me that the subordinate's views and judgment may be every bit as crucial as the judgment of the superior and I can see no reason why we should be tied to cultural and habitual patterns in operating this way.—C. A. Gibb, Professor of Psychology, Canberra University College. From *Public Administration*, March, 1959.

Where Are The Dollars For Higher Education Coming From?

HOWARD R. BOWEN

"Our society urgently needs excellent higher education and, basically, is aware of the need. If the position of higher education were seriously threatened, the people of the United States would not stand idly by and let our industry wither."

In higher educational circles, there may be a shortage of money, but there is never a shortage of talk about money. Most of this talk has a very practical purpose, namely, to raise more money. Such talk makes liberal use of concepts like "the population bulge," "inflation," or "faculty shortage," and usually concludes on a note of disaster or crisis. I am in a position to know, because I have engaged in some of this talk myself.

From this audience, however, I see no prospect of raising any money, and so my remarks will be in a low key and designed hopefully to inform and not to incite. I shall try to give a general view of the finance of higher education over the next 10 or 20 years. I shall do so from the perspective of an economist.

Higher Education Viewed As An Industry

It is useful, and I hope not too un-

dignified, to regard higher education as an industry consisting of some 2,000 separate firms. The product of this industry is in the form of attributes, values, and skills imparted to young men and women. The firms are not all alike. They vary considerably in size, in methods of production, in nature of product, and in consumer acceptance. In the language of economics, they practice product differentiation, and the relations among them could be described as imperfect competition.

Institutions of higher education differ from ordinary business firms, chiefly in their finance. Businesses acquire their capital from the sale of securities or the reinvestment of profits and obtain their operating income (including return of capital) from the sale of their product in the market. If a business firm can consistently sell enough product at a price high enough to cover its costs, it makes a profit and stays in business or even expands. If it consistently fails to do this, it eventually disappears. And because each business firm competes in the market with other firms, it must produce as efficiently as the others if it is to survive.

An address before the National Conference on Higher Education, March 7, 1960. Reprinted by special permission of the Association for Higher Education. Dr. Bowen is President of Grinnell College.

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A college or university, on the other hand, usually obtains its capital from taxation or philanthropic gifts and obtains its operating income only in part from the sale of its product. It makes up the deficit chiefly from taxation, from gifts, and from income on endowment obtained from earlier gifts. To stay in business, the college or university must somehow continue to obtain enough capital to carry on its functions, and it must obtain enough fees, public appropriations, and gifts to meet its operating costs. Because a college derives a substantial part of its revenue from gifts and taxes, it is not required to meet a competitive test of efficiency. It can stay in business so long as it can obtain enough gifts and taxes to cover its costs—regardless of what these costs may be.

These generalizations apply to both public and private institutions. Both types obtain capital from taxes and gifts, and both types obtain operating funds from student fees, taxes, and gifts. The proportions of these sources vary, but almost all institutions obtain some money from all these sources.

An Expanding Industry

At the present time and over the foreseeable future, the industry we call higher education is engaged in a very rapid expansion due to an increase in demand for its product. The increase in demand is the result of several factors: (1) the high birth rate starting about 20 years ago, (2) rapid technological development which has increased the demand in our economy for college-trained people, (3) the growing desire of young people and their families for college education, and (4) the rising level of family incomes which enables young people to afford the time and money needed for college.

If higher education were a profit-making industry faced with a rapidly rising demand, the industry would raise its prices and enjoy handsome profits. This, in turn, would encourage expansion of existing firms and the entry of new firms. Because higher education is conducted as a public service and not for profit, the increased demand is interpreted in terms of social responsibility. Existing institutions are trying to make room for more students, and new institutions or branches of old ones are springing up all over the country. At the same time, prices, i.e., student fees, are being raised. Curiously, the response of higher education to the increased demand, though motivated differently, is almost exactly like that of a profit-making industry.

Higher education is also experiencing a change in the character of the product being demanded. The technological changes and the growing appreciation of education among our people are creating a demand for more intensive and qualitatively superior education. Better models of the old product are wanted. And we are now attempting to fill that demand too. Our response is like that of the automobile industry to the demand for the compact car.

To expand our industry requires that we obtain more workers, mainly teachers and administrators. The supply of skilled personnel cannot be increased immediately, and so salaries in our industry are rising, and will continue to rise, more rapidly than salaries in general. Faculty salaries are now rising on the average at around eight per cent a year, as compared with about three or four per cent a year for salaries in general. Our salary scales must continue to rise rapidly until we can compete with other industries and government for the quality of personnel we

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need. The substantial increases in salaries over the past few years have already had an impact both in attracting young people into teaching and in encouraging people employed in industry and government to shift to teaching. If teachers' salaries continue to increase at present rates, colleges will eventually become competitive, and then the rate of increase can level off. Considering the many non-monetary advantages of college teaching, and the perceptibly rising status of the profession, we are closer to a competitive scale than is generally assumed. In my opinion, the present rate of salary increases will have to be maintained for not more than four or five years to bring us into line with competing employers. Thereafter, further increases can approximate the rate of increase in wages and salaries generally, namely, three or four per cent a year. Those who must raise the money may welcome this opinion; teachers who are rapidly becoming conditioned to large increases in pay may look upon it with some regret.

The size of the teaching and administrative force must continue to grow, however, for many years, and the total salary bill for higher education will probably continue to rise so long as enrollments are on the increase.

Similarly, the rapid expansion of higher education will require vast amounts of new buildings and equipment. Capital outlays will need to be at unprecedented rates until our industry attains a stock of buildings and equipment sufficient for the expected high enrollments.

All this can be summarized by saying that we are going through a transitional period from one general level of operation to another much higher level. The annual increases in both operating and

capital expenditures are much greater during the transition than they will be when we reach the new plateau. The transitional phase has already been going on for about five years and is likely to continue for another ten or more years.

The dimension of the problem is seen when we realize that over the 15-year period from 1955 to 1970 we shall have added students at the average rate of 200,000 a year. For each 200,000 students we must add about 20,000 professional workers. Allowing for a 100 per cent increase in salary rates over the period and for increases in non-salary items, our annual operating budgets in 1970 may be \$5 or \$6 billions more than in 1955. And for each 200,000 students, we should add perhaps \$1,000,000,000 worth of capital, or \$15,000,000,000 over the 15-year period. Whether these estimates are correct or not is unimportant. The important point is that the amounts involved are very large—in fact, two or three times our recent rate of spending. And we are quite understandably wondering where the money is coming from, especially when we are already having difficulty meeting our costs.

A Note Of Optimism

It may be well to introduce at this point a note of optimism.

We are already five years into the transitional period. Our budgets are on the whole far above what any of us would have dreamed possible even five years ago. The colleges and universities I have known, both large and small and both public and private, have never before in my memory been so strong financially, so vigorous intellectually, or so high in public esteem. The jarring sounds of the bulldozer and the riveter are being heard on nearly all campuses, and scores of new

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institutions have been established. Clearly important progress has already been made.

Moreover, if you will examine the historic records of most institutions—the speeches of presidents and the minutes of trustee meetings—you will find that ours is not the first generation of college administrators who have faced financial uncertainties. College finance has always been a kind of act of faith. It has never been easy or automatic and probably never will be. So long as educational leaders are aware of the enormous frontiers that lie ahead, are cognizant of how much teaching and learning is needed, there will be financial stringency. The stringency is as much a function of educational ambition and foresight as of shortage of funds, and that is as it should be.

Our society urgently needs higher education, and it is coming increasingly to recognize that need. If the position of our colleges and universities, either individually or collectively, were seriously threatened, or if they were unable for lack of funds to carry out their mission, the people of the United States would not, indeed could not, stand idly by and let them languish. In a sense, I am saying that whatever money is needed will eventually be forthcoming, and the only real question is to guess from what sources it will be obtained.

Finally, the needs of education, while large in comparison with past requirements, are really infinitesimal when considered as part of a present gross national product of \$500,000,000,000 or a future GNP that may approach a trillion dollars in the 1970's. The oft-repeated statement that we spend less for higher education than for liquor or tobacco is trite, but it is nevertheless true. There is no doubt

whatever about our being able to *afford* all that is needed.

For all these reasons, it would be almost ludicrous to have less than strong confidence and buoyant faith in the future of our industry. But faith need not prevent us from looking ahead, rationally and realistically, to determine where the money may come from.

Philanthropic Giving

In recent years, we have witnessed a tremendous increase in philanthropic giving to higher education. The amount has perhaps doubled in the past five years. The prevalent theory that high income and death taxes discourage giving has proved to be unsound. An equally good or better case could be made for the proposition that high taxation encourages giving. To be sure, philanthropy is changing in certain respects, but it is not drying up. Not only is the money available in large quantities, but a keener sense of social responsibility has been spreading among the higher and middle income groups.

Part of the increase in giving has been due to a kind of revolution in the techniques of fund-raising. Nearly every college and university now has special departments of fund-raising and public relations with well-paid and well-financed staffs. The fund-raising counsellors are to be found on all sides, and there are literally hundreds of campaigns in progress at all times. Devices like annual alumni giving, deferred giving, special bequest campaigns, state organizations of colleges, the Council for Financial Aid to Education, the Association of Small Colleges, and the like are being more generally employed. The state institutions are becoming much more aggressive—and successful—in quest of contributors. The

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net effect of all this activity has been to create a climate of public opinion more aware of the needs of higher education and more receptive to appeals for funds. One of the significant results has been to legitimize giving by business. The soulless corporation, long regarded in law as a person, has at least taken on one of the more attractive personal virtues, namely, charity.

Despite this encouraging progress, I have some doubt if giving can continue to increase at the rate achieved in recent years or if it can increase in proportion to the growing needs of higher education. This statement may not be true for particular institutions, but I think it is true for our whole industry. While giving will doubtless increase even more than in proportion to the growth of GNP, it is likely to represent a smaller share of total educational revenues as time goes on.

As a footnote, I might add that I regard with some dismay the efforts of public institutions to secure more gifts. While the short-run effects may be desirable for particular institutions, I think that dollars obtained this way will in the long run result in lower public appropriations with the result that the total flow of dollars to higher education may be reduced.

Endowment Income

The income from endowments has been growing slowly and declining as a percentage of total revenues. It is destined to decline still more in relative importance. In any case, endowment provides significant income for relatively few institutions. Only about 50 institutions earn as much as a million dollars a year from endowment income. The tendency to encourage unrestricted gifts, and to spend the money for current operations,

has put a severe brake on the accumulation of endowment. Moreover, many institutions have financed deficits by drawing down endowment or by diverting gifts to current operations that might once have flowed to endowment.

I have heard the question seriously discussed whether a college should try to accumulate further endowment. Some responsible and informed people are suggesting that the annual flow of small gifts should be spent directly for current operations and that unusual, large gifts should be spent over a period of years with a view to stabilizing income, rather than to be held in perpetuity.

I have not made up my mind on this question. An endowment is a very comforting thing to have. It lends stability and independence to an institution. But during the period when needs for both operating and physical plant are rapidly growing, it may be wiser for institutions to move ahead in the near future than to provide for the very distant future. In my opinion, this issue has not been debated as fully as it should be.

Student Fees

Perhaps the most controversial question in college finance today concerns the role of student fees. A profit-making industry will respond to a rapid increase in demand by raising the price of its product. Our industry has responded in exactly this way. Student fees in both public and private colleges have been rising rapidly. But private colleges, not having public appropriations to call upon, have raised their fees more rapidly than public institutions, and the spread between public and private fees has widened. As a result, the leaders of private colleges have become apprehensive lest they be priced out of the market. And even if they do

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not fear price competition as such, they worry lest they be confined to students from upper income families and thus become snobbish class institutions. They can partially overcome this problem with a system of discounts (euphemistically called scholarships), but few private colleges can afford to grant the discounts required to obtain a truly diversified student body.

Some leaders in private colleges have suggested that tuitions in public institutions should be raised, and a few have actually lobbied for such higher tuitions. The leaders of public institutions have resented these suggestions and actions, and tempers have flared. The potential conflict at one time seemed so serious that several meetings were called to talk over differences and to draft conciliatory statements. While overt conflict has been avoided, the basic issue of the role of student fees in the finance of higher education has not been resolved.

On the one hand, it is argued that the individual student is the chief beneficiary of higher education and that he or his family should bear most of the cost. In its simplest form, this argument asserts that payments for higher education are an investment in the student which will be returned to him many times over in higher income.

Many of those who advance this argument advocate the use of credit in various forms or the use of savings plans under which families can accumulate the money needed to send their children through college. And it is usually suggested that the rigor of the plan would be tempered by generous use of scholarships based on need. The argument is sometimes reinforced by the assertion that it is educationally desirable for young people or their families to assume financial respon-

sibility for their education.

On the other hand, it is argued that the benefits of higher education are widely diffused throughout our society, that the progress and security of our society depends on widespread higher education, and that a large part of the cost should be paid by society-at-large through taxation. This argument is reinforced by the assertion that in a democratic society opportunity for college education should be readily available to all young people without discrimination as to economic or social status. Moreover, it is held that if tuitions in public institutions are raised, the purpose will be defeated, because appropriations will decline, and the total flow of income to higher education will not be increased.

There is, of course, validity in both positions. The benefits from education are both individual and social. Whether the benefits of education can best be made available to all groups by a system of high tuitions with ample scholarships to the needy, or by low fees for everyone, is arguable. The rub is that the private institutions do not have enough scholarship money to be as democratic as they would like, and the public institutions are giving a free ride to many students whose families could well afford to pay substantial tuitions.

I do not have a ready solution for the problem, but I should like to make two observations.

First, I think the issue is less grave than usually supposed, because too much attention is focused on tuition, which is only a fraction of the total cost of attending college. The true cost of attending college (as the economist would figure it) is the loss of income, because the student forsakes employment, plus tuition and fees, transportation, books, and supplies.

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I omit board, room, clothing, and general living expenses, because the student would have these costs even if he were working. Assuming conservatively that the average student could earn \$2,500 a year if he were employed instead of studying, the cost of four years of college, in terms of income forsaken, is \$10,000. Add to this an allowance for transportation, books, and supplies, and the total cost without tuition becomes perhaps \$11,000. If he goes to a state institution with tuition and fees of \$200 a year, the total cost for four years is about \$12,000. If he goes to an expensive private institution with tuitions and fees of \$1,000 a year, the total cost becomes \$15,000. The true cost of attending the expensive private institution is thus only about 25 per cent higher than at the public institution, although the private tuition is five times the public tuition. The problem can be worked with similar results if one counts the living expenses as part of the cost and omits the forsaken income. Along this line, many parents who have one child at Grinnell, a relatively high tuition institution, and another at a state university tell me that the difference in total cost is surprisingly small despite the wide disparity in tuition.

On the other hand, a given differential between public and private tuitions will become more significant when the children of the large post-war families reach college age. A family with four or five children to educate will be more cost-conscious than one with only one or two children.

Second, I think there is a great need in this country for additional scholarship money that is not tied to particular institutions but is available for needy students at institutions of their choice. Most of the scholarship money in this country

determines *where* students go to college. Too little assists students who could not otherwise go somewhere. There is an enormous waste of talent, especially among children of minority groups, immigrant families, and low income families, not only through lack of funds, but also through lack of knowledge of opportunities and lack of motivation or stimulus from families and peer groups. To draw out this talent, we need big scholarships (in some cases enough to offset loss of family income), and we also need energetic and imaginative guidance bordering on social work. With a great scholarship program of the type I am suggesting, a program that could be financed only by the federal government, some of the difficulties of private colleges could be alleviated.

With or without such a scholarship program, however, I would predict that tuitions will, and I think should, continue to rise and that tuitions will make up an increasing proportion of the total income of all institutions—public as well as private. The problem in the case of public institutions will be to prevent the rise in tuition income from reducing state appropriations.

Taxation

The role of taxation in the future finance of higher education is the obverse of the role of student fees. These are clearly to be the two major sources. To the extent that more of the load can be shifted to students and their families, less must be borne by public funds. In recent years, the percentage from public funds has been slowly declining. The question is whether this trend will continue.

There is abroad today a good deal of pessimism about the ability of government to maintain its relative position in

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the finance of higher education. The financial difficulties of state and local government are well known. The plight of Michigan and New York City have been widely publicized, but the condition is widespread. The problem has many facets. It is caused partly by the inherent difficulty of raising taxes in a small area which is in competition with other areas. It is caused also by the fact that there are many competing claims for the local tax dollar as the problems of urbanization multiply. Perhaps most important, it is caused by the deep-seated tendency in this country to value trivial private expenditure ahead of urgent public expenditure with the result that we fritter money away in unimportant private consumption while public services languish. From the purely economic point of view, most areas could increase their taxes substantially in the sense that there is plenty of income that could be tapped. On the other hand, the federal government which has a very powerful engine of taxation, is inhibited by questions of federal-state relationships. Moreover, the educational world itself has not yet quite decided whether it wishes to receive increasing amounts of federal money.

In my opinion, the case for increasing federal aid to higher education is overwhelming. I feel that such aid is both necessary and virtually inevitable, and that the educational world should turn its attention away from the futile question of whether such aid should be sought and accepted to the practical questions of how much is needed, how it should be distributed, and on what terms it should be made available.

The question of federal control is important. That is one reason why the educational world should oppose any restrictive provisions like the loyalty oath

and disclaimer affidavit in the National Defense Education Act. But our job is to learn to join with the federal government in a fruitful partnership and not to oppose federal aid on various theoretical grounds.

As a first step, it seems to me that federal aid might appropriately be given on a massive scale for student aid and physical plant. The ice has already been broken by the National Defense Education Act and by the long-term loans for student housing. Immediate additional needs are for a scholarship and guidance program, of the kind I have suggested, and for outright grants for the construction of educational buildings. Later, consideration should be given to annual grants for operating purposes, perhaps on the basis of a given number of dollars per student enrolled. In the federal grant, major attention should be given to the provision of equal educational opportunity to youth in all parts of the country and in all socio-economic classes.

Efficiency

In conclusion, I should like to say a few words about operating efficiency in higher education. We are being told repeatedly and pointedly that we cannot afford to operate in our accustomed ways and that the solution lies in greater operating efficiency, i.e., reducing the cost per student in both money and faculty time. The usual proposals include: (1) use of TV and other mechanical aids, (2) increasing the average size of classes by means of lectures and curricular streamlining, (3) reducing the number of class meetings through independent study, off-campus study, etc., (4) greater use of teacher aides and assistants in place of fully-qualified teachers, (5) more intensive use of physical facilities through revised

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scheduling of the college week or the college year, (6) increasing the size of very small institutions, (7) reducing student attrition through more careful selection and better guidance, and (8) inter-institutional cooperation.

I am enthusiastically in favor of efficiency. As I have already indicated, colleges do not meet the competitive test of efficiency that businesses face, and there may be a good deal of slackness that does not come to light and that should be corrected. In fact, colleges have been inclined to boast about their inefficiency as, for example, when they advertise their low ratio of students to faculty. Yet, I am not bowled over by the talk about inefficiency. It is easy for outside observers to generalize on the basis of isolated cases. I am not ready to concede that our industry, on the whole, is operating less efficiently than many profit-making industries. Moreover, if we use cost per student as the criterion of efficiency, it may well be that we should be expanding more per student, not less.

This brings me to the question: What do we mean by efficiency in higher education? Efficiency is measured as a ratio between quantity of inputs and quantity of outputs. In the case of our industry, the inputs of labor and capital are easily translated into dollars and can be measured. The outputs, unfortunately, are not easy to measure or even to identify. They are not merely a number of students who have completed arbitrary requirements or who achieve certain test scores. The outputs consist of human personalities and are in the form of values, attitudes, and motives, as well as skills and knowledge. It is by no means obvious that the standard proposals for increasing efficiency are really efficient in terms of the true goals of higher education. They may help us to

award more degrees per \$1,000,000 expended, but they will not necessarily help us produce personalities of the kind we cherish.

Efficiency in a college is something like efficiency in the home. In both cases we are rather more concerned about a quality of life than about the quantity of outputs. In a home, we do not worry about the fact that each room is not in use 24 hours a day. We are quite content to use the kitchen in the morning, the sun porch in the afternoon, the living room in the evening, and the bedroom at night. One must concede that a certain kind of efficiency would be achieved if all these rooms were combined into one which would be used 24 hours a day, as is apparently the custom in the Soviet Union. But who would call this efficiency in terms of the true objectives of the family?

So it is with higher education. To attain our ends, we need to achieve a sense of community in which intimate personal association is possible; there must be a place for religion, beauty, tradition, ritual, community participation, contemplation, and just plain fun; the scholar must have time for scholarship; a satisfying rhythm of activities for each day, each week, and the academic year must be established. The underlying philosophy must be that of the home, or the church, not that of the feed lot or the assembly line.

Another more technical point is that the largest single cost of higher education is the time of students who might be gainfully employed if they were not at college. The most significant objective for efficiency, therefore, is to produce as much education as possible per student involved, not merely to turn out as many students as possible per \$1,000,000 spent by the institution. In view of the fact

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that the student time committed to our industry is its largest single cost, it must be evident that those proposals for efficiency which increase or improve the education available to each student should be given first priority. In other words, improving quality of education is the most efficient thing we can do.

Having uttered these notes of caution, I must add that there are certain relatively limited things most of us could do to increase institutional efficiency. These would vary from institution to institution, and it behooves all of us to hunt for these savings. My experience and observation suggests, however, that the amount of saving possible through greater efficiency is considerably less than is sometimes claimed, if one sticks to the proposition that educational quality should be raised.

Reduction Of Services Offered

I think there are many more opportunities for savings through the streamlining of services offered than through improving efficiency. I think the state universities in particular are involved in many peripheral activities that use up funds which might better be devoted to the education of undergraduate, graduate, and professional students. I refer especially to the multitude of community services, many of which have been taken on to satisfy particular interest groups or to win supposedly influential support. A careful and fairly ruthless examination of the activities of most institutions, public and private, would reveal numerous programs that might well be curtailed or abandoned in favor of greater expenditure on the education of resident students.

Another area where services might be curtailed is in the standards of student housing. Dormitories are rapidly becoming

more luxurious and include steadily increasing amounts of service. I have often said that it is only a matter of time until a dormitory will be built in some college with every student having a private room with bath. Well, I actually saw that recently on a state university campus. This dormitory was a near replica of a new Hilton Hotel. I happen to believe in somewhat Spartan living for students, and I think it is a mistake for the colleges of this country to compete like Florida hotels on the basis of luxury housing. And it is not sufficient to say that this housing is self-liquidating, because the dollars spent in unnecessary rentals might have been collected as tuitions.

Still another area where we are operating wastefully is in the broad area of public relations. If we define as public relations everything we do specifically to attract students, raise money, and create favorable public attitudes, I would guess that these activities amount to 10 to 20 per cent of our educational expenditures and that they are on the increase. These activities are necessary partly because we are in competition with one another for students and for financial support, and these public relations activities probably could not be curtailed without a general moratorium to which all or most institutions would agree. Needless to say, I do not have much hope along this line.

A third area where we could make significant savings is in the style of student life on our campuses. In many institutions, the accepted style of life includes automobiles, liquor, fraternities, or luxurious dormitories, expensive wardrobes, night clubs, trips to Bermuda at Spring vacation, etc. At no institution does this pattern extend to all students, but in many it is the standard which sets the tone and to which most students aspire.

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Other institutions have maintained a modest style of student life in which the cost of being "one of the gang" is relatively small. I believe it is a mistake, both educationally and financially, for student life to become expensive.

From the educational point of view, I believe that relatively Spartan living becomes the scholar and is conducive to earnest and serious study. From the financial point of view, I believe that the money students must spend "to keep up with Joe" ought to be diverted to tuitions to support education. It is easy to ridicule the position I am taking by labeling it Puritanism or paternalism, but I believe the educational and financial stakes are too high to condone the frittering away, on luxurious living, the funds that should go to education.

A fourth way out for many institutions will be limitation of enrollments. In a society that is about to demand a college degree for nearly every child (to be conferred, if not at birth, on his 21st birthday), it is perhaps not realistic to limit total enrollments. But it may be possible to restrict the more expensive types of education to those young people who have the capacity to benefit in proportion to the cost. It will be possible and necessary for many institutions, both public and private, to alleviate their financial problems by limiting their enrollments.

Frankly, I do not have much hope that efficiency will be significantly improved

or that peripheral services will be curtailed, or that public relations activities will be reduced, or that the style of student life will be simplified, or that enrollments over-all will be limited. Regretfully, I expect costs in these areas to rise rather than to decline.

Conclusion

I shall conclude with the same act of faith with which I began. Our society urgently needs excellent higher education and, basically, is aware of the need. If the position of higher education were seriously threatened, the people of the United States would not stand idly by and let our industry wither. My experience leads me to believe that the support we need will derive more largely from excellence than from the low cost per student.

In general, I expect all sources of support to increase absolutely. Relatively, I think philanthropy, endowment income, and state and local taxes will become less important. These expectations do not apply, of course, to particular institutions, but rather to our industry as a whole.

I cannot close without expressing my debt to Beardsley Ruml, Seymour Harris, John Millett, and to the "Report of the President's Commission on Education Beyond the High School." I have drawn generously from these sources.

And I am also indebted to you for your kind attention.

The Use Of Downward Communication

ELWOOD C. CLARK

Personnel directors who have programs in the early stages of development will find this article helpful; old "pros" will find it worth the reading.

The necessity for additional educational facilities to handle the increasing number of young people seeking college training is recognized as one of the most important domestic problems of this country. Outstanding architects are being called upon to prepare the best possible plans for physical expansion; a continuous effort is being made by our educators to improve educational curricula and research techniques. As our educational system expands, the business management of these institutions must expand proportionately, not only with employees and physical facilities, but with improved techniques of modern management—the techniques of management that are taught in our colleges but often not practiced by the colleges.

For many years the personnel administration for most colleges and universities was communicated to the employees out of the "back pocket" of an administrative officer responsible for financial and other business activities. Policies and practices changed as expediency dictated. After

World War II, however, some of the institutions began to recognize the need to give more attention to personnel administration through the establishment of personnel departments. With the increased emphasis on personnel administration and employee relations, the time has arrived for all educational institutions, regardless of size, to take their personnel policies, procedures and practices out of the "back pocket" and communicate with their staff members through modern management methods.

Employee communications may be defined as the flow of orders, instructions, and information among individuals within a business organization. This definition may be applied equally to educational organizations or to commercial enterprises. This concept of communications includes the transmission of information: (1) from management to the employees; (2) from the employee to management; and (3) cross-communications between management groups or between individuals. Each of these three directions of communications—downward, upward, and across—is important in maintaining an effective operating team of employees. It is not the intent of this article to dis-

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cuss each direction of communications; instead, the comments will be limited to the area of downward communications. Likewise, this article is not designed to inform the experts who have had years of training and experience in personnel administration, but it may be of some value to the institutions who have personnel programs in the early stages of development.

Some of the widely used techniques of downward communications are orientation programs, bulletin boards, departmental meetings, employee handbooks, letters to employees' homes, policies and procedures manuals, house organs, pay inserts and news stories in the local press. Many of these techniques can be effectively used in colleges and universities. The four that will be discussed in this article are orientation programs, employee handbooks, policies and procedures manuals, and house organs.

Orientation Programs

There are two methods that can be followed in introducing a new employee to her job. One method is to introduce her to the supervisor or department head through the use of a card or with a brief oral introduction such as, "Mary Newcomer, hired for your clerk-typist job." Through this method "Mary" is left in wonderment and confusion to find out about her new environment through her own questioning. The other method is a proper introduction through a complete orientation program—to the job, to the personnel that surround it, and to the objectives of the organization which she is serving.

The value of this second method is particularly applicable to educational institutions. Through an orientation program, educational institutions have an

opportunity to develop a feeling in new employees of being part of an organization serving a high purpose in the accomplishments and goals of our society and to lay the groundwork for loyalty to the institution as the employer. Many personnel administrators in colleges and universities know their institutions attract applicants and hold employees because individuals like to "work for the college." The orientation program should be used to immediately communicate to the new employee the history, tradition, functions, and accomplishments of the institution, as well as an understanding of its size and facilities.

The extent and detail of the orientation program may vary according to local conditions. Among the institutions now using this important communications technique, programs vary from a brief explanation by the personnel or business office representative of the institution's functions and the job of the new employee to the grouping of new employees at a luncheon or dinner with an address by the president or other senior administrative officer and a tour of the facilities or campus. Even though an elaborate program may not be possible, the important factor is to have a positive planned program regularly used to cover specific items of information and presented in a way that will stimulate interest and be absorbed. The time and preparation put into this initial opportunity for good communications pays dividends in favorable employee attitude and morale.

Employee Handbooks

An employee handbook is often the first step in bringing together in written form the piecemeal policies that have been used in the personnel administration of a college or university. Ideally, a

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policies and rules manual, couched in precise language, should precede the preparation of a handbook. In a newly-established personnel organization, however, it is not always feasible to prepare and maintain such a manual. In its place, a personnel practices and policies file can be maintained to support items in the handbook.

The value of any communication is measured by its effectiveness on the group it is intended to influence. Therefore, to serve its purpose, the employee handbook must be designed and written in a manner that will stimulate the employee to read it and understand its contents. The usual recommended size for the handbook is about 4 x 6 inches to 6 x 9 inches; the face, style, and size of type should be carefully selected, and a dull finish, rather than glossy, paper stock is considered most acceptable. Likewise, it is desirable to have a cover designed to appeal to the prospective reader. Above all, the information in the handbook should be expressed in non-technical, understandable language that is of interest to the reader. Sketches, pictures, and drawings in a written communication of this nature help emphasize important points and stimulate reader interest.

The following areas of information are usually included in the handbook:

1. Introduction (welcome from the president, history of the institution, responsibilities and objectives of the institution, employee responsibilities).
2. Benefits (salary plan, hours, holidays, vacation, sick leave, retirement plan, insurance plans, and similar information).
3. Other Employee Benefits (educational benefits; athletic events; availability of dining, bookstore, library, and other facilities).
4. General Information (accident and

workmen's compensation, leaves of absence, jury duty, car parking, changes of name or address, and similar information).

The handbook serves a dual purpose in communications. (1) It gives the new employee and his family information about the objectives and policies of his employer and explains his benefits and responsibilities as an employee; (2) it serves as a ready reference to department heads, employees, and supervisors on college or university policies and practices.

Policies and Procedures Manuals

The policies and procedures manual is somewhat related to the employee handbook, but it is prepared in more technical language and with additional detail. It may be given to all employees, although many organizations prefer to limit distribution to supervisory personnel who are trained in proper interpretation of the precise wording. It is the supervisory personnel who must answer questions from employees, uniformly and equitably, on interpretation of the general rules and policies outlined in a handbook.

Most personnel policies in our colleges and universities have developed after considerable trial and error experience. Frequently, weeks, months, or even years of time and study are given to policy problems. Therefore, when a personnel practice has been repeated several times and examined for soundness and validity, it deserves to be put in writing in the form of a firm policy. The policies and procedures manual is a compilation of the decisions that have been made on the course or plan of action to be followed in specific personnel and administrative situations.

It is common to have the manual cover all the business operations in an educa-

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tional institution with one section of the manual applicable to personnel policies.

House Organs

The newsletter or house organ is one of the most effective means of giving factually correct information on current items of personnel administration which are of interest to employees. It is a media for correcting inaccurate information and rumors circulated through the "grapevine." Let's face it—the grapevine is here to stay along with the misinformation it carries and the misunderstanding it creates. Changes in policy, rules, or benefits can be transmitted without delay through the newsletter or house organ during the interim period prior to the release of the corrected policy and rules manual or handbook. It can keep staff members informed of new undertakings and problems of the institution. It can help develop understanding and appreciation of the work being done in the various departments and divisions of the institution.

House organs have become one of the most widely used methods of communicating with employees in the businesses and industries of our country. Estimated combined circulation is seventy million, with readership estimated at one hundred million. The activities on the college campus and the campus life form a solid foundation of information for a house organ and for the use of this widely recognized means of regularly communicating with employees on things they ought to know.

The house organ for an educational institution should not develop into a gossip or scandal sheet with information about the personal or social life of employees. Information about the part an employee's position plays in the operation of the in-

stitution or the accomplishments of individual employees which contribute to the institution are the type of "personals" that are appropriate and newsworthy. An editorially balanced publication should combine what readers want to know, as well as what they ought to know without becoming a gossip sheet. It is an instrument of communication; it is not an entertainment medium or an end in itself.

What We Are Attempting To Accomplish

Albert Schweitzer wrote, "We wander through life in a semi-darkness in which none of us can distinguish exactly the features of his neighbors; only from time to time through some experience that we have with our companion or through some remark that he passes, he stands for a moment, close to us, as though illumined by a flash of lightning." The illumination that can be given through effective communications can be compared to the flash of lightning dramatically described by Schweitzer.

It is our responsibility as personnel administrators to "illuminate" the policies and practices of our institutions through recognized effective techniques of written and oral communications such as those suggested in the previous paragraphs. We should tell employees those facts which will make them feel they belong, that they are informed and are an inseparable part of their job, their department, and the institution. We should clearly explain their benefits and privileges, as well as their work assignments and responsibilities. We should tell those things which make employees have a feeling of opportunity and security, that will remove the wonderment, anxiety and aimless

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A Report Of Visits, Of Observations, And Of Study In Universities In The United States

ENRIQUE CASTRO

Dr. Castro, Official in Charge of Personnel Office, Universidad de Costa Rica, visited a number of the universities of the United States, with the assistance of the members of the College and University Personnel Association. An edited copy of Dr. Castro's report to his university president presents what he considered the important points of interest of his visit to us.

1. The present report is a concise resumé of some of the observations which I had the opportunity to gather in personnel offices and other administrative departments of various universities in the United States during the months of January, February, March, and April [1960].

The first days of my visit in the United States were spent in Washington [D.C.]. There I was informed that my work as a participant in the training program under the auspices of the International Cooperation Administration (ICA) would be in charge of Donald E. Dickason, Personnel Director of the University of Illinois in Champaign-Urbana, Illinois, to which city I traveled after approximately four days in the Capital of the United States.

2. At the University of Illinois I was the recipient of all types of attention on

the part of Mr. Dickason and the subordinate personnel of his office. I was also given ample opportunity to visit and inform myself completely upon the organization and performance of duties in other administrative departments of said University, among them:

(a) The administration of the Physical Plant of the University, police, janitorial services, heat, air-conditioning, parks and gardens, general maintenance, etc.

(b) The mechanized equipment belonging to the Business Administration Department of the University. In said mechanized division the weekly, bi-monthly, and monthly payrolls are made up and processed; also the preliminary work on budgets, the budgets, the directories of academic personnel, administrative personnel and students, the telephone directories, and the registration cards are processed; the class schedules for the students and professors are printed—in short, at this place any statistical

The original report was written in Spanish and has been translated for THE JOURNAL through the courtesy of the staff of the Latin American Institute, Southern Illinois University and Dr. Basil C. Hedrick, Assistant Director of the Institute.

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data or any other type of information relative to students and to the personnel in the service of the University are provided.

(c) The Central Secretarial Pool which services a number of small offices, and which provides the specialized personnel in functions of secretarial nature to other dependencies when for any reason whatsoever regular workers are absent. This office also offers mimeographing services to almost all of the other University dependencies.

(d) The Employment Service of the University, the function of which is to find work opportunities in their respective professional careers for students at graduation and to put industry in the community in touch with students who desire to offer their part-time services when not in conflict with the study schedules. This service is also in charge of all matters relating to labor relations between the University and the students who offer their part-time services to the institution.

(e) The Office Work Simplification which, as its name indicates, has in its charge the study of work methods and their possible simplification with an eye toward offering more economic and efficient service. The work of this office is principally carried on in the University hospitals and in what are called the Professional Colleges (Pharmacy, Medicine, Nursing, etc.). It is located in Chicago.

(f) The Office of Employee Safety and Hygiene which seeks to diminish work accidents, directs measures in university buildings, and seeks the prevention of risks of any nature which could cause injury to personnel or harm the economic interests of the University.

(g) The Credit Union which provides easy credit at a low cost to its membership and which can count many years of

efficient service with its own capital surpassing a million dollars.

3. In the Department of Physical Plant Administration I was especially interested in the organization of the Security, Traffic, and Police Services (paragraph 2-a) which are taken care of by what is there called "The University Police." It is interesting to see how 42 persons, which was then the number of people working in said section, maintain security and order and watch over all of the property in the buildings of the University which, numbering approximately 800, are located in a very vast area in urban and rural zones. This efficient work is carried out in this section with two patrol cars; an efficient telecommunication system and with the good will and cooperation of the police departments of the neighboring cities of Champaign and Urbana.

4. In the Office of Personnel I was able to inform myself, and observe in detail, the functioning of each one of the activities under the aegis of said department: recruitment and selection of personnel; job classification; and maintenance of the classification system in effect; control of salary schedules and authorization of payrolls under the current budget; the handling of accident compensation, with preliminary study of the cases presented; maintenance of labor-management relations; handling of disciplinary actions; and negotiation of annual work contracts with the labor unions; handling of courses in the fields of supervision and human relations for heads and directors of administrative sections and departments; administration of aptitude tests for those soliciting administrative posts; maintenance of all work memoranda and papers of all nonacademic university employees; administration and supervision of orientation programs for new em-

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ployees who must submit to medical examinations soon after beginning service with the University; etc.

5. It is interesting to note here that the State of Illinois maintains a system of Civil Service for the Universities of the State which number six at the present time. The system formulates the policy which regulates the relations between the State and the nonacademic workers in its universities and operates independently from the central Civil Service system of the State.

The Central Offices of this system are found in a building which is the property of the University of Illinois, and the Director of System is also Director of Nonacademic Personnel for the University of Illinois.

For me it was very advantageous and interesting to be able to observe the norms and systems of personnel administration which originate there, and which, as I have said, are valid in all of the institutions of higher learning in the State of Illinois.

6. I had the opportunity to exchange impressions with Dr. Royden Dangerfield, Head of Academic Affairs and Dean of Administration, in relation to the structure of the academic field; current salaries for professors; general norms in the academic field and general work conditions for academic personnel, etc. Perhaps it would be worth while to give a

resumé at this point, in a schematic form, of said classifications. (See below.)

The total number of University academic personnel approaches 6000, and the number of administrative personnel also approaches 6000. The budget for the academic year 1959-60 was \$83,000,000. Regulations governing relations with the academic personnel, as well as their personnel records, are handled through the office of Dr. Dangerfield, which is at the same time a dependency of the office of the President of the University.

7. At the same time that I was at the University of Illinois there took place, in Chicago, the annual meeting of the Midwestern Section of the College and University Personnel Association, and I was very graciously invited to participate therein. In said meeting, not only did the members of the Midwestern States participate, but also all members of the Executive Committee of said Association were present. This meeting gave me the opportunity to know the distinguished personalities in the field of personnel administration in colleges and universities in the United States. At this meeting inquiries were made into the possibility of my visiting some personnel offices in the centers of higher learning which were represented there. On the basis of those interviews, a program of visits was arranged, which I detail below.

8. The first of these visits was to the

<i>In the teaching field</i>	<i>Equivalent in the field of research</i>	<i>Annual average salary in dollars (Academic year 1959-60)</i>
Professor	Research Professor	\$10,800
Associate Professor	Associate Research Professor	7,850
Assistant Professor	Assistant Research Professor	6,500
Instructor	Associate Researcher	5,400

In addition, there are Assistants who generally are students of postgraduate studies with the duties of research assistants or instructors.

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University of Washington at Seattle. For me the short stay at the University was very advantageous. Mr. Reginald Root, the Personnel Director, generously gave of his time to explain the personnel program they are developing and its progress to date. The problems which they have are quite similar to ours, since his office was established only a short time ago—about two or three years ago, if I remember correctly—and they were just at the point of putting final touches on their job classification plan and on the salary projections which will apply to the administrative employees of the institution. There I was also able to notice the very diverse problems which originate in the personnel administration of a modern school of medicine with its own hospital—problems which have brought about the creation of an additional personnel office subordinate to the central direction, specifically charged with the administration of personnel in the medical school.

9. I then visited the University of California. This University is one of the largest in the United States, and its Physical Plants are located in seven distinct separate regions of the State of California; I had the opportunity to visit three of those regions—Berkeley and San Francisco, Sacramento, and Los Angeles.

In this University there is a situation similar to that which exists in the State of Illinois insofar as the administration of its personnel is concerned, since a Central Personnel Office exists on the campus at Berkeley, seat of the government of the University. This entity formulates the personnel policy for all of the University and peripheral offices in all of the other university campuses.

I believe it convenient to mention the proverbial gentility with which I was received by Mr. Boynton Kaiser, the Direc-

tor of Personnel, and by his subordinates in that office and the ample opportunities which were given me to observe all personnel procedures and the activities of the Administrative Department similar to those I had had the opportunity to visit at the University of Illinois.

10. In the same State I also had the opportunity to visit the California Institute of Technology located in the city of Pasadena. This Institution, despite the fact that it has a rather limited number of students, finds itself with numerous academic, administrative, and technical personnel dedicated in great part to research, which makes the administration of its personnel quite complex. The system of classification which is used there differs a bit from that of the universities previously cited; it is a bit more flexible and apparently fulfills quite well the needs which originated it. Mr. James Ewart, its Personnel Director, as well as the personnel in his office, made me the object of undeserved attentions and gave me all types of help and facilities which, for my visit, were extremely advantageous and gracious.

11. On terminating the visits in the Western portion of the United States, I again returned to Champaign-Urbana where I remained for a period of two weeks. During that time I had the opportunity of discussing in some detail with Mr. Dickason the norms and procedures which I had observed at the University. As always, Mr. Dickason and his immediate collaborators were generous with their time and their knowledge, putting both at my disposition. I also took advantage of the second visit to the University of Illinois in order to spend some time in its professional colleges and to visit for a period of two days the Personnel Administration and some other ad-

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ministrative departments of the University of Chicago, and the Central Offices of Public Administration Service, a Consulting Service which offers advice and other administrative services to local and state governments of the United States and other countries, as well as various other entities of a public nature—national and foreign. It is a coincidence that this organization, under a contract signed with our government, carried out the classification and evaluation plan for the Civil Service positions which today exist, and also drew up the Salary Law of the Public Administration which was later passed by our Legislative Assembly.

12. I then journeyed to the University of Omaha in the State of Nebraska. This University had been included in my itinerary since it is one of the few institutions of its type maintained principally with municipal funds. At this University the number of regular students who attend day classes is relatively small; nevertheless, the evening extension courses are highly appreciated in the community and a great number of students of very different age levels and highly varied social conditions attend them. The fields and subjects covered in the courses usually are of a practical type and of general application, a fact which makes them highly appreciated by the general populace.

At this University the personnel administration is in the charge of an administrator, the Business Manager of the Institution, who has a rather reduced number of personnel devoted to these duties.

It was interesting to observe that at this Institution the aptitude tests of the candidates for employment were administered by the Testing Section of the Department of Industrial Psychology, which also offers this service in a satisfactory

and efficient manner to commerce and industry in the locality.

13. On my return from Omaha I had the opportunity to visit a normal school which is the pride of the State; I refer to Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Illinois. This college has a most modern plant designed for its special needs, including its own kindergarten, primary, secondary, and vocational schools. It operates its own system of closed circuit television for use as an educational medium in its schools. It has a personnel office organized in accord with the techniques of modern personnel administration and operates, as has been said, under the norms set up by the University Civil Service System for all the state-supported universities of Illinois.

14. I next visited the personnel offices of the Tulane University in New Orleans, the system of Agricultural and Mechanical Colleges in the State of Texas, the University of Texas, and the University of Florida. In all of these I was received with equal cordiality, and as in other cases, the most ample opportunities to visit other administrative departments were also offered. At the University of Texas, as well as in the system of Agricultural and Mechanical Colleges in that State, I noticed that the system of classification and evaluation of administrative posts was created by the previously mentioned "Public Administration Services" of Chicago.

15. Finally, I visited the Personnel Administration of the Harvard, New York, and Pennsylvania Universities, the latter in Philadelphia, and I was able to observe in them the details of the personnel systems in existence, as well as some of the jumbled administrative procedures in the government of institutions of such magnitude.

16. I spent the last days of my program in the Central Office of the ICA in Washington, D.C., where I submitted to the consideration of the authorities of that branch a report similar to this. In Washington I was able to note the prestige which the Costa Rican Civil Service organization enjoys, since it is considered the only legislation of that nature really in effect in the twenty Latin American republics. I also noted the feeling of appreciation of the fact that the disciplines of personnel administration have to such a high degree received acceptance in our country.

17. In resumé, one could say that in almost all of the universities which I had the opportunity to visit I observed that there is in effect an active program of personnel administration for administrative and technical employees of the institutions, and that, generally speaking, said personnel administrations almost exclusively deal with the norms which regulate employees excluded from the academic field. The University of Pennsylvania was the exception. There the administration of the over-all personnel regulations is centralized in the personnel office in charge of Dr. Fred Ford, operating apparently in a very satisfactory manner.

The personnel programs to which I have referred have an intimate relationship with everything in one form or another related to the general policy of the institution towards its employees: job classification; wage scales; recruitment and selection; life and hospital insurance; programs of safety and hygiene for the working force; collective contracts with unions; payment of accident compensation; procedures to handle the grievances of the university's nonacademic employees; orientation programs for new

employees and foremanship training for chiefs (directors) and subordinates; promotion of programs of economic and social welfare including the establishment of cooperatives, promotion of social and sport activities, etc.; preparation of rules of administrative procedure and work manuals; advice to administrative authorities in the formulation of work rules; administration of endowments and retirement systems; maintenance of personnel records and files; periodic surveys of salary levels tending to determine those existing in similar employments and the fringe benefits which the workers of those enterprises enjoy; etc., etc.

I observed that in all of the universities there exists currently some type of job classification which is the backbone of the personnel administration system in use.

Perhaps the most important lesson which I was able to derive from the entire trip was the fact that our own personnel program is being properly handled; that the focus which we have always tried to give to the problems which our Office of Personnel must face is apparently the one most in agreement with common sense; that the best manner of obtaining collaboration of the higher administrative authorities and of all of the workers of the University in general is through persuasion and convincing them that the functions of a personnel office are counsel and help, and that the final goal of its activities is perforce that harmony, mutual respect, justice, and equality should always prevail in employee relations.

I was also able to note the magnificent work of which the College and University Personnel Association is capable through

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A Plan of Position Classification for Colleges and Universities, College and University Personnel Association, 605 South Goodwin Street, Urbana, Illinois, 1960, 336 pp., \$2.50 initial copy, \$3.00 for each additional copy to Association members; \$5.00 to non-members.

Through this volume, the College and University Personnel Association is providing to all colleges and universities the 733 class specifications which made up the classification plan for the University Civil Service System of Illinois as of August, 1960. The Association provided for the publication of this volume in the belief that the System's classification plan (serving all the state-supported institutions of higher learning in Illinois) makes available a set of class specifications which may serve as a guide in the preparation of position classification plans adapted to the special needs of colleges and universities.

Although job evaluation on college and university campuses has come a long way in the post-war years, many schools still do not have a formal set of descriptions covering their positions. For these institutions this publication, with its specifications ranging from general positions on small liberal arts campuses to technical posts in highly professional schools, will provide a basic set of descriptions which

can be adapted or revised to meet the individual organizational patterns. For those schools with classification plans already in effect, the publication offers many reference opportunities in checking job duties and qualifications.

In addition to the listing of the class specifications and an index both by alphabetic arrangement and by promotional lines, the book provides a short, but well-written, introduction to the topic of position classification, with the pros and cons of the subject and suggestions for establishing a program.

This book deserves an important place in the library of every college and university business and personnel office.

Fred C. Ford
Director of Personnel
University of Pennsylvania

For many years the by-products of classification surveys of municipal and state governments have been compilations of class specifications which landmark these patterns of public employment. In their best use these landmark compilations have permitted the comparison of thoroughly fresh classification surveys with those in previous and similar systems in order to check their validity. At worst the availability of such specifications has permitted lazy or unimaginative survey teams shamelessly to plagiarize the pat-

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tern of job standards of one system and to impose it uncritically on a different environment.

The publication of this complete set of class specifications for a major state-wide system of nonacademic employment in public universities similarly opens the doors both to discriminating users and to copycats. The employment pattern on exhibit is, however, a richly variegated one. As American higher education enters a period of almost unpredictably rapid expansion, this sample of one already large system can be a useful reference for other growing systems.

The editor has supplied a sensible rationale for the classification plan. For each position specification in this exhibit (there are over 730) are listed function, characteristic duties and responsibilities, supervision received and given, minimum acceptable qualifications, and additional desirable qualifications. A series of suggested promotional lines and an index of titles complete the handbook.

Thomas Page
Associate Professor, Institute
of Government and
Public Affairs
University of Illinois

Policies and Practices in Higher Education by Algo D. Henderson, Director of the Center for the Study of Higher Education, University of Michigan, Harper, New York, 1960, 338 pp., \$5.75.

This book suggests answers to many difficult questions relating to the administrative and academic activities of an educational institution, including the following: What should be taught? Who should be taught? How should higher

education be financed? Should institutions expand in proportion to demands for their services, or exercise more discrimination in admitting students? What is the future of the small private college?

Referring to some of the major personnel problems which confront colleges and universities in administrative, academic, and nonacademic areas, the author notes that the increasing size and complexity of educational institutions weakens the relationship between administrative officers and faculty members. There is a need for a well-integrated organization structure and clear channels of communication.

The author advocates a "central representative body" to participate in formulating personnel policies relating to salary levels, faculty promotions, sabbatical leaves, group insurance, and retirement. "If the college is to have an outstanding faculty," the author concludes, "some alert administrator must fill the role of a chief personnel officer, supervising the efforts of department heads in the selection and promotion of staff."

Analyzing problems involved in recruiting and retaining a competent faculty, the author observes that the current shortage of good teachers may curtail the graduate program of a university because the more competent instructors are required to devote a disproportionate amount of time to undergraduate courses. In recruiting faculty members, the author suggests that institutions consider the employment of competent women, retired or semi-retired teachers, and qualified local citizens who are available for part-time teaching. He deplores the practice of "inter-institutional raiding."

Financial incentives are recognized as important in attracting and retaining good teachers. The author also recom-

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mends consideration of non-financial incentives, such as assurance of academic freedom, adequate library and laboratory facilities, supplementary compensation to absorb incidental expenses, sufficient secretarial and clerical assistance, group insurance, an adequate retirement plan, and an environment conducive to advanced study and research.

The author, who has been a teacher and an administrator in institutions of higher learning for more than 30 years, is unquestionably well versed in his subject. Before becoming Director of the Center for the Study of Higher Education at the University of Michigan, he was president of Antioch College and a member of the President's Commission on Higher Education.

For the reader who is primarily concerned with only a few of the many topics discussed, the text is conveniently divided into the following sections: Trends and Objectives; Students; Program; Faculty; Administration; Strengths and Weaknesses of American Education. For those who wish to study any of these topics more extensively, there are eight pages of "selected references" classified under the same section headings.

This book is addressed primarily to graduate students who are preparing for college teaching or for college and university administration. In this reviewer's opinion, it is stimulating extra-curricular reading for college and university personnel administrators and members of their staffs. Administrative, academic, and non-academic problems in any college or university are interrelated.

Robert Mears

Reducing Sick Leave Abuse, by Keith Ocheltree, Personnel Report No. 592,

Public Personnel Association, Chicago, 36 pp., \$2.50.

To anyone who is faced with the problems of controlling sick leave uses and abuses, this reference would be of substantial value. The report is divided into three parts: sick leave practices and problems, present system of control, and some suggested new approaches to sick leave control. Mr. Ocheltree has used to advantage an extensive survey of sick leave practices conducted in mid-1957 by the city of Tacoma, Washington. The questionnaire was sent to 91 cities and to 12 states and 10 counties. Seventy-four of the agencies responded, thus providing an excellent cross-section of programs currently in use in governmental agencies at various levels.

From this base, the author has carefully outlined sick leave accumulation practices, permissible uses of sick leave, administration, and patterns of use. He has discussed at some length the patterns of use, showing the relationships of seasons of the year to use, for example. He points out that, as we would expect, sick leave is used more during the winter months than in other periods of the year, since the rigors of winter cause increases in respiratory infections. However, since this pattern is also present in mild-climate areas of our country, there must be other reasons for these use patterns, and the author indicates some of the factors which may be present in them.

From here, he moves through descriptions of some of the plans in operation, identifying the agencies by name, and frankly evaluating the advantages and disadvantages which each plan evokes.

Next, the author investigates some newer approaches to sick leave control, such as discretionary sick leave, under

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which program, if an employee is ill and can substantiate to the satisfaction of his supervisor the need to stay at home, his time off is with pay. In other words, there is no accumulation, no maximum, "... the department head only has to assure himself that the reasons for taking sick leave were valid, and leave with pay is approved." Other suggestions include part-pay for sick leave, insurance to cover employee illnesses, and a program in which all vacation, holiday, and sick leave are grouped into one total. Again, the advantages and disadvantages of each approach are discussed.

Mr. Ocheltree's opinion is that sick leave abuse control should not be attacked as a separate problem, but rather should be viewed as a symptom of other morale problems, and suggests each of us sit back and take a long, hard look at our

total program. Once this is done, he proposes a suggestion which would tend to gradually reduce those factors which contribute to morale problems, which, in turn, would reduce sick leave abuses.

The entire policy statement, the forms used, and the analysis of sick leave taken, as developed by the city of San Diego, California, is included as a type of model plan from which others might draw ideas in the development of their own program. He completes his report with an excellent bibliography for those who wish to examine additional references on this important topic in modern personnel administration.

Robert O. Watson
Field Personnel Officer
University Civil Service
System of Illinois

EDITORIALLY SPEAKING

Editorially Speaking . . .

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quirements beyond our control which tell us what we must do and establish limitations on what we can do.

4. *Establishing a friendly, warm attitude in the Personnel Office.* The faculty member should get a pleasant reaction when he contacts the Personnel Office (or other administrative office) by phone or in person.

5. *Securing their assistance.* Ask for help from the faculty in developing a special project, in a training program, as a speaker at an employee meeting, or in other ways to get them involved in the "fringe" of administration. This is an opportunity to acquaint them with some of the administrative problems.

6. *Letting them know the extent of the employee group and the functions performed.* The number of professional and technical employees required to perform the intricate details of a large college or university program will no doubt be a surprise to most faculty members.

7. *Developing confidence and respect for the Personnel Office.* You can gain confidence and respect by:

Recruiting that perfect secretary or technician just at the proper time. This is what Personnel Directors are paid to do, so a little more attention devoted toward this service will not only contribute toward earning your salary but will result in improved relations.

Training their staff. A real opportunity for service is in the area of preparing the staff to perform duties which will lighten the burden of the faculty.

Helping with employee relations problems. The Personnel Director can score a few extra points by using his skill and effort to rescue a faculty member from a

difficult situation in which he unwittingly finds himself.

Moving in fast when the opportunity is presented for service. The Personnel Director should be prepared to utilize the full force of proper speed and timing when academic departments need services he can provide.

Showing the faculty that you have something to give—that you aren't just a control, paper-shuffling office.

8. *Re-writing the rules so the game will be familiar to the faculty.* When you want to introduce a new form or procedure, or change a policy, you should work it and rework it, write it and re-write it, explain it and re-explain it; then pitch it at the most elementary level which is practical.

Realizing the differences in basic orientation between faculty and administration, attempt to mold the administrative requirements to fit a combination specification instead of thinking only about the gain to be achieved for your personnel office.

9. *Informing the faculty of the importance and goals of administration.* The faculty needs to be informed that the day of the scholar in the ivory tower is past. They need to face the facts that higher education is big business; it is complicated; it is expensive. It takes back-breaking work for the administration to provide everything from funds for faculty salaries to chalk for the proverbial blackboard.

They also should be informed that faculty and administration have the common goal to provide, with facilities available, the best possible education to the largest number of qualified students at the least cost.

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THE JOURNAL

Report Of Observations In United States Universities . . .

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its associates, as a central organism for the exchange of ideas, and through the media of meetings and periodical publications and the significance to us of the resolution of the University Council affiliating our institution (No. 38 of session No. 1014 of 27 July, 1959) with said Personnel Association.

I should not care to terminate this report without stating my sincere thanks for

the noble and disinterested aid given me and the quantity of knowledge which at all times I received from Mr. Donald E. Dickason, Personnel Director of the University of Illinois, for he thereby contributed so much to my visit to the United States, making it advantageous and most pleasant in the highest degree.

My gratitude is expressed also to the ICA for the very kind invitation which they extended me, and I should like to thank the higher authorities of the University of Costa Rica for the leave which they gave me in order to be able to carry to a happy end the observation and study trip so many times cited herein.

The Use Of Downward Communication . . .

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questions that make for confusion and indifference at work. We should select those things to tell employees which they will take pride in knowing and which will help satisfy the needs for attention, status, and the feeling of importance.

In conclusion, let us recognize that our personnel policies, procedures, and practices cannot be held in the "back pocket" of an administrative officer if we expect employees to develop and maintain the will to do an effective job and render loyal service to the institution.

Editorially Speaking . . .

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Summary

We must remember to impress upon ourselves that our colleges and universities do not exist to provide us, or the administrative staffs, with jobs. (What would happen to us if we didn't have faculty or students?) We are basically a portion of the higher education triangle of students, faculty, and staff.

We must watch attitude—this is a prerequisite for success. If we have a co-operative, friendly, helpful attitude toward the faculty, we are on the right track.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY

PERSONNEL ASSOCIATION

(Available from the office of the Executive Secretary, Donald E. Dickason,
605 South Goodwin Street, Urbana, Illinois.)

Personnel Practices In Colleges and University—Faculty and Staff, compiled by
William E. Poore, 1958, 171 pp., \$5.00 (offset).

Personnel Administration On The Campus, by Donald E. Dickason, 1959, 24 pp.,
\$2.00 (mimeographed).

A Plan Of Position Classification For Colleges and Universities, 1960, 336 pp., \$2.50
initial copy, \$3.00 for each additional copy to members; \$5.00 to non-members
(printed).

EDUCATIONS OF THE COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY

PERSONAL ASSOCIATION

K

The following is a list of the names of the persons who have been associated with the College and University of the State of New York, in the capacity of students, teachers, or otherwise, during the year 1900-1901.

The names are arranged in alphabetical order, and are given in full, with the name of the college or university to which they are attached.

The names of the students are given in the first column, and the names of the teachers in the second column.

The names of the persons who have been associated with the College and University of the State of New York, in the capacity of students, teachers, or otherwise, during the year 1900-1901, are as follows: